Factors affecting sex-related reporting: a cross-disciplinary bibliometric analysis of medical research

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ABSTRACT

Background
Clinical and pre-clinical studies have shown that there are sex-based differences at the genetic, cellular, biochemical, and physiological levels. Despite this, numerous studies have demonstrated a lack of inclusion of female populations into medical research. These disparities in sex inclusion are further problematized by the lack of sex reporting: that is, describing the population under study. Disparities in inclusion of both sexes in medical research significantly reduces the utility of the results of medical research for the entire population. The lack of sex reporting can be problematic for the translation of research from the pre-clinical to clinical and applied health settings. Large-scale studies are needed to identify the degree of sex-related reporting and where disparities are more prevalent. Furthermore, there are several studies showing the dearth of female researchers in science, yet few have evaluated whether a lack of women in science may be related to disparities in sex inclusion and reporting.

Methods
This paper analyses sex-related reporting in medical research, based on a set of more than 11.5 million papers indexed in Web of Science and PubMed between 1980 and 2016 and using sex-related Medical Subject Headings as a proxy for sex reporting. Descriptive statistics and regression analyses are used to analyze these data.

Results
Despite an increase in sex-related reporting between 1980 and 2016 in clinical medicine (59% to 67%) and public health research (36% to 69%), sex remains largely underreported in biomedical research (31% in 2016). Furthermore, papers with female first and last authors have a higher probability of reporting sex, with an odds ratio of 1.26 (95% CI: 1.24-1.27) and sex-related reporting is associated with publications in journals with low impact factors. For instance, for the publications in 2016, sex-related reporting of both male and female is associated with the reduction of -0.51 (95% CI: -0.54, -0.47) in impact factors.

Interpretation
This paper suggests that the current gender disparities in the scientific workforce and lack of policies on sex-reporting at the journal and institutional level may inhibit effective research translation from bench to clinical studies.

RESEARCH IN CONTEXT

Evidence before this study
Literature review searches were conducted in June 2016 (and periodically thereafter) on several bibliometric databases, including PubMed, Web of Science, and Google Scholar, using terms such as “sex reporting”, “sex analysis”, “sex inclusion” as well as terms on “gender bias”, “gender disparities”, and “sex factors”. The latter terms were particularly analyzed in reference to bibliometric terms (e.g., “citation” and “author”). The queries revealed several hundred articles on related topics, primarily reinforcing sex-based differences in medicine and the underrepresentation of women in science. These studies demonstrated that there are strong sex-based differences at the genetic, cellular, biochemical, and physiological levels and argue for the
construction of policies for greater sex-related reporting and analysis in medical research. Sex-related reporting has been shown to be low, but increasing. However, extant studies are often monodisciplinary (or cover only a few specific specialties or diseases) and fail to account for the translation from biomedical, to clinical, to public health research. This has potentially negative effects as research done on one sex in the biomedical phase are then translated and used on patients of the opposite sex in public health research. Furthermore, there is a growing body of research suggesting a relationship between the gender of the researchers and the outcomes of the research.

**Added value of this study**

Our findings provide clear evidence of the growth of sex-related reporting in research and how it varies across medical disciplines and specialties. Clinical specialties report on sex much more than biomedical specialties, with fertility, obstetrics and gynecology, and urology having the highest incidence of sex-related reporting, and hematology, immunology, and pharmacy having the lowest. Controlling for confounding factors, female first or last authors have a higher probability of sex-related reporting, and are more likely to report studying females or both sexes, and journals with the high impact factors are less likely to report sex. This provides a contemporary and comprehensive analysis that complements earlier studies of rates of sex-related reporting and provides a novel extension of research demonstrating the relationship between sex-related reporting and author gender.

**Implications of all the available evidence**

There has been a strong increase in sex-related reporting, particularly in clinical research and public health, but sex remains widely underreported in biomedical studies. This can be addressed through policies at several levels: funding agencies should mandate sex-related reporting in proposals and journal editors should insist upon sex-related reporting in submissions. Sex-related reporting should be a necessary requirement for ethical and replicable medical science. Furthermore, this research suggests several consequences of the demographic composition of the scientific workforce and the distribution of labor on scientific teams. Women are underrepresented in leadership positions and more likely to conduct experimentation than to be responsible for research design. Our research suggests that this is likely to be related to lower rates of sex-related reporting and analysis, particularly for female populations. Diversification of the scientific workforce is essential to produce the most rigorous and effective medical research.

**INTRODUCTION**

Sex matters in science. Numerous clinical and pre-clinical research studies have shown that there are sex-based differences at the genetic, cellular, biochemical, and physiological levels. Indeed, sex is at the source of numerous cellular variabilities, including rate of tissue re-generation (1), plaque formation (with critical implications for coronary artery disease) (2), and even susceptibility to neuronal cell starvation (3). Research on animal and human subjects has shown sexual dimorphism in cardiovascular disease, pulmonary issues, kidney problems, autoimmune disease, and various neurological conditions (4-5). Despite this, females have often been under-represented or excluded from research, with grave consequences. For example, the inadequate consideration of sex differences in pharmacokinetics and pharmacodynamics (6-7) has led to
disastrous results: of drugs withdrawn from the market from 1997 to 2001, 80% posed greater
health risks for women than for men (8).

A bias for male samples in pre-clinical research has often been justified by an alleged
inconsistency caused by female oestrous cycles; the underlying rationale for this exclusion was
that a homogeneous sample that limited diversity as much as possible would enable the isolation
of key variables and lead to more coherent results. However, recent empirical research has
shattered the myth of female variability, finding that males exhibit greater variability than
females on a number of traits (9-10, 13-15).

Recognizing that the costs of omission are far greater than any downside of inclusion, the 1993
Revitalization Act mandated the increased enrollment of women in clinical trials for
government-funded research. By 2013 more than half of all participants in National Institutes of
Health (NIH)-funded clinical research studies were female (9) and there was a strong increase in
sex-inclusive research. However, male bias during that same time increased in animal studies
(10) and dominated research of cultured cells (11-12).

The continued avoidance of sex-related reporting and analysis in pre-clinical studies reduces the
ability to replicate research, gain knowledge on sexual dimorphism, and identify heterogeneity
within female samples. Consequently, it also reduces effectiveness of research translation—
potentially augmenting the risks—of clinical studies on human subjects. To address this, the NIH
issued a policy in 2014 that called for balanced use of male and female cells and animals in
preclinical studies, unless sex-specific exclusion could be rigorously justified (16).

The sex of the research subject or sample is not the only place where sex matters in scientific
research. Studies increasingly emphasize the importance of the demographic characteristics of
the scientist and the interaction between scientists and those studied (35). For example, one study
found that male laboratory technicians increased the stress of rodents under study, particularly
female rodents (17). Furthermore, there is increasing evidence that the presence of female
investigators may lead to increased sex analysis in research (18; 39).

However, the extant literature fails to provide a contemporary and cross-disciplinary analysis of
the degree of sex-related reporting across the health sciences—from biomedical, to clinical, and
public health research—and the role of author gender in sex-related reporting. The present study
seeks to address this gap.

METHODS
We contribute to this line of research with a large-scale analysis of 11.5 million articles. The
goals of the paper are 1) to provide a comprehensive analysis of sex-related reporting across all
specialties of biomedical, clinical, and public health research over the last 37 years; 2) to test the
relationship between author gender and sex-related reporting in medical research; and 3) to
examine factors that are associated to sex-related reporting in medical research. There is
considerable ambiguity in the use of terms to describe sex-related reporting. Sex inclusion is
often used to describe the inclusion of male and female populations in study and sometimes to
refer exclusively to the inclusion of minority populations in a domain. Sex analysis is used to
refer to the use of sex as an analytic variable in a study (thereby requiring the inclusion of both
Sex reporting is often used to denote the identification of the sex of the included population. In the present study, MeSH headings are used as a proxy for sex reporting. We therefore use the term “sex-related reporting” to denote studies that include the specified MeSH headings.

**PubMed**

Data from PubMed were downloaded from the U.S. National Library of Medicine bulk download website1. Raw XML data were transformed into a relational SQL database that allows for the compilation of bibliometric indicators. All Medical Subject Headings (MeSH) associated with sex (major and non-major topics) were used to retrieve papers that report sex (Table S1). In order to have mutually-exclusive categories of papers, we have categorized papers by reporting 1) only female, 2) only male, 3) both sexes, or 4) no sex. Given the concerns that have been raised regarding the use of classification systems for examining sex in clinical and public health data (36-37), we conducted a validation exercise to check for false negatives and false positives in our data. Our analysis is based on the assumption that those studies that report on the sex of humans, animals, and cell cultures include an indicative sex-related MeSH. To test the use of MeSH for sex-related reporting, we used a specialties-based stratified sampling of articles and did and *not* include a sex-related MeSH (See Appendix). This has shown that, whereas MeSH serve as indicative of sex-related reporting, they cannot be used an indicator of sex analysis.

**Web of Science**

To obtain citation data, journal disciplinary classification, the Journal Impact Factor (JIF), and assign gender to authors, we matched papers indexed in PubMed with their equivalent record in Clarivate Analytics’ Web of Science (WoS). The matching of PubMed records with those of WoS was primarily conducted using three sets of matching keys: 1) Digital Object Identifiers (DOIs); 2) title, publication year, first author, and starting page; and 3) volume, publication year, first author, and starting page. Additional matching was also performed using the title, publication year, first page, and journal name, using a conversion table for journal names—based on the set of papers matched using the three abovementioned keys—as well as fuzzy logic was applied when titles were not identical. Over the 1980-2016 period, 88.2% (16,192,312 papers) of PubMed papers published in journals indexed by the WoS (N=18,349,143) were matched; this percentage increases from 81.9% in 1980 to 89.0% in 2016, mostly due to the greater presence of DOIs. Papers matched with WoS were attributed to a discipline and a specialty based on the classification developed for and used by the U.S. National Science Foundation. In total, 11,572,428 papers were matched between PubMed and WoS over the 1980-2016 period, once limited to the field of Biomedical Research, Clinical Medicine, and Public Health (as per the National Science Foundation field and subfield classification) and to research and review articles. Public Health covers a majority of papers public health and health policy, as well as geriatrics and nursing, among others. Contrary to the WoS Subject Categories, this classification scheme classifies each journal into one discipline and one specialty. JIFs were corrected for the asymmetry between numerator and denominator (41), which means that only citations received by articles and reviews are counted in the numerator.

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The WoS began indexing given names of researchers in 2008, which allows for the assignation of a perceived gender to authors. Thus, for papers published between 2008 and 2016 and which could be matched with PubMed ($N=3,298,951$) we assigned gender of first and last authors—which can be considered in medicine as dominant authorship positions (29)—using their names following the assignment algorithm described in (26). More details on the algorithm, which has also been used in (42-43), can be found in the supplementary materials and files of (26). The algorithm assigned a gender to 72.4% of first authorships ($N=2,387,311$) and 76.0% of last authorships ($N=2,508,420$). Names that remained unassigned were mostly due to initials (i.e., 11.8% of first and 12.4% of last authors), with a small number of names that could not be confidently assigned a gender (15.8% of first and 11.6% of last authors).

A brief note on terminology is warranted here. We use the term sex to discuss the samples or populations under study, while we use gender to refer to the author on papers. Gender of authors is determined by names, which provide—within a reasonable margin of error—the perceived gender of the authors. This distinction is deceptively simple: the concept of ‘sex’ is usually understood as involving biological attributes such as reproductive, hormonal, genetic, and metabolic differentiation between male and female (30); gender, by contrast, is a concept that includes cultural and psychosocial factors linked to sex but often determined as a type of “embodied social structure” (31). However, because it is often difficult to assess what is due to sex and what is due to gender or both, the notions are often conflated in medical research. For example, there is a sex-based difference between a female’s auto-immune response which is generally higher than that of males due to hormonal differences (32), but gender differentiation may also modulate immune disorder because of external exposure (e.g., chemical, viral, bacterial) (33). In this research, we will use the notion of sex to characterize populations, samples, cells, etc. knowing that this may be linked to gender; conversely, we will use gender when considering the authors of the research acknowledging that this is also related to sex.

**Regression analysis**

Starting from 3,298,951 papers, we first removed papers for which we could not determine the gender of either first or last author ($N = 1,192,430$). We then created two tables for single-author papers ($N = 87,824$) and multi-author ones ($N = 2,018,697$) (Table 1). We used logistic regression and OLS linear regression models to analyze the data. A full description of these analyses can be found in the Appendix.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics of the sex-related reporting and the gender of the authors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex reported?</th>
<th>Total sample</th>
<th>FF</th>
<th>FM</th>
<th>MF</th>
<th>MM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>1,127,989</td>
<td>180,136</td>
<td>305,738</td>
<td>147,174</td>
<td>494,941</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>890,708</td>
<td>117,959</td>
<td>246,861</td>
<td>119,971</td>
<td>405,917</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The funders had no role in study design, data collection and analysis, decision to publish, or preparation of the manuscript. CRS, YYA, BM, and VL had access to the data. All authors were responsible for the decision to submit the manuscript.
RESULTS

There has been a dramatic increase in sex-related reporting in clinical medicine and public health research (Figure 1). In 1980, only 36% of public health research reported on the sex of the participants. By the late 1990s, the majority (69%) of studies reported on sex and a growing number focused on female-only populations (from 8% to 11%). By 2016, the majority (54%) of public health studies reported both male and female populations. In public health, single sex studies focus more often on females than on males (11% vs. 4%). Clinical studies show an increase of sex-related reporting from 59% to 67%—although until recently males were included more often than female. The move to report both sexes occurred much later in clinical studies than in public health: while more than half of papers in public health indicate sex-related reporting in 2016, this percentage is at 43% in clinical medicine. Despite calls for reform, sex remains underreported in biomedical research; the great majority of papers (nearly 70% in 2016) fail to report on the sex of samples. However, in recent years, there has been a moderate increase in the number of studies that incorporate both sexes, though this appears to be due to a decrease in the number of single-sex studies, rather than an increase in any type of reporting.

Fig. 1. Percentage of papers addressing sex (MeSH terms), by discipline, 1980-2016

Fields are not equal when it comes to sex-related reporting (Figure 2). Fertility (97%), obstetrics and gynecology (96%), and urology (83%) are among the disciplines with the greatest incidence of sex-related reporting. Clinical medicine fields with a cellular or biochemical focus, such as hematology (49%), immunology (42%), and pharmacy (24%), have the lowest levels of sex-related reporting. This aligns with the distribution of sex-related reporting in the domain of biomedical research, where only nutrition (63%), physiology (57%), and anatomy (53%) have a majority of papers reporting on the sex of the population. Furthermore, in these disciplines, males are studied more often than females. Public health research has the largest percentage of sex-related reporting with a norm towards including both sexes in the analysis—54% in 2016.
We estimated logistic regression models to study relationships between the gender of the authors and sex-related reporting. The dependent variable of our models is the reporting (SR=1) or non-reporting (SR=0) of sex (see Methods and Supplementary Materials for more details and alternative models). The odds ratios of the key independent variables are shown in Figure 3.

Upon controlling the number of authors, representation of women in specific diseases (f_mesh) and in countries (f_country), continents, year, and specialty areas, having female first or last authors is positively associated with sex-related reporting. The effect size is the largest when both first and last authors are female, with odds ratio of 1.26 (95% CI: 1.24-1.27). The number of authors is also associated with the reporting of sex. Having twice as many authors corresponds to the odds ratio of 1.96 (95% CI 1.94-1.97). There are also regional variations: compared with North America, papers from all other regions, particularly Africa, are more likely to report sex. This variation may stem from the different prevalence of research topics across regions rather than biases or norms. Finally, the effect size of the ‘year’ variable is almost zero, suggesting that most of the temporal variation may be explained by other factors, such as increasing number of female authors and papers from outside the U.S.
Fig 3. Odds ratio of sex-related reporting from the logistic regression analysis. Throughout our models, the reference variable for the author’s gender combination is Male-Male and that for the geography is North America. The error bars represent 95% confidence intervals, which are smaller than the symbol in many cases. The leftmost plot shows the result from the aggregated dataset that include all three major disciplines (still controlling for all sub-disciplines), while the three following plots show results based on each major discipline separately. The effect of having female author(s) is positive across all cases. See Table S3-S10 for the regression tables, including those for the SR_M, SR_F, and SR_B models.

Current incentive structures value placement of research in journal with high journal impact factors. However, high impact journals are not examples of best practices regarding sex-based reporting. Papers with sex-based reporting are more likely to appear in lower-impact journals than those without sex-based reporting, even when controlling for speciality of publication (Fig. 4). For instance, for the publications in 2016, sex-related reporting of both male and female is associated with the reduction of -0.51 (95% CI: -0.54, -0.47) in the impact factor.

Fig 4. The effect sizes of independent variables on the impact factor of the journal. The error bars represent 95% confidence interval. As in Fig. 3, the left-most plot shows the overall result while the other three panels show results from individual major discipline. Reporting sex is associated with lower impact factors and the effect remains stable over time.


DISCUSSION

Our results show that, over the last forty years, there has been a dramatic rise in sex-related reporting in clinical medicine and public health; yet, there has not been a concomitant rise of sex-related reporting in biomedical research, where only 31% of papers reported on sex in 2016. For clinical medicine and public health, percentages of sex-related reporting reached 67% and 69% (respectively) in 2016. This confirms trends which have implied increasing rates of sex-related reporting (45); however, this is the first study to provide a proportion of the literature which is inclusive of all disciplines and specialities.

Our results demonstrated strong variation in sex-related reporting across disciplines. Some of these differences may seem intuitive: e.g., it is perhaps unsurprising that women are studied most often in gynecology. However, some of these imbalances can lead to grave consequences. Bias with regards to fertility studies has created a dangerous double standard in some clinical trials in which women must have contraceptive requirements, but men do not, even when paternal drug exposure may lead to fetal harm (19). Sex-related reporting is the first step towards improving ethical standards of research in regards to sex.

Area of research is only one factor that affects sex-related reporting in medical research. Papers with female first and last authors are more likely to report sex—especially female or both sexes—controlling for number of authors, representation of women in diseases, specialties, countries, continents, and publication years. These results complement recent results (18), which, based on the GenderMedDB (44), have shown that female first and last authors were more likely to report on sex. However, our results are based on a larger dataset— 3,394 vs 1.1 million papers reporting sex analyzed in the regressions—, with more controls and distinguishing between in the sex that is reported (female, male, or both). That is, while previous research has shown that female authors were more likely to report on sex, it did not demonstrate that women were also more likely to study females. This is a novel contribution of the present analysis.

Our analysis also provides evidence that research with sex-related reporting is more likely to appear in lower impact journals. Given their higher visibility, one might argue that high impact journals have a particular responsibility to enforce sex-related reporting when warranted. Furthermore, our regional analyses demonstrated that North American had the poorest rates of sex-related reporting across regions. This finding suggests that North American institutions must be proactive in order to achieve higher proportions of sex-related reporting in medical research. Analysis of sex-related reporting—at the journals, institutional, or country level—would be facilitated by greater standardization reporting practices in bibliographic indexes, which would lead to increased transparency.

Limitations

The use of indicators to measure science comes with some inherent limitations. We use MeSH as indicators of sex-related reporting in research. Our validation suggests that this approach is relatively accurate at identifying sex reporting, but is inadequate to analyze sex analysis. Further developments are necessary to ensure that sex-related data are provided to publishers and indexers in a nuanced and valid way for future analyses.
We used journal-level classifications to indicate disciplines and specialities, based on the National Science Foundation classification. While this is standard in bibliometric analyses, it has limitations in the identification of papers’ specific topics as well as potential misclassification of multidisciplinary research. The bibliometric alternative is the construction of a paper-level classification, but this comes with strong limitations, such as the lack of meaningful analytic clusters and the instability of clusters for diachronic analyses. We account for this limitation by taking diseases into account in our model.

There are limitations to the use of authors’ names as an indicator of their gender. Compared to self-report data, gender disambiguation algorithms are limited in that they can only be applied to those who have a full first name (rather than initials) and have a name that can be classified in a gender-binary way. There is therefore a sizeable proportion of authors of papers analyzed for which we could not assign gender, and this proportion varies by country, with a higher share of unassigned names in Asian countries.

In our regression models, we did not explicitly model the missingness of the gender variables, adopting the ignorability assumption, as in a similar previous study. If the missingness of gender variables is strongly affected by unobserved factors, it may have produced biases in our results. Also, like in the aforementioned study, our main models also ignore the papers that do not have the disease McSH terms with associated average female first (last) author fraction, although we note that the models that include such papers and do not use \( f_{\text{mesh}} \) produce qualitatively similar results. The impact factor models have similar limitations. The relationship between the prestige of a journal and coverage of certain diseases associated with sex-related reporting should be taken into account in interpretation.

CONCLUSION

At the cellular level—especially in the case of \textit{in vitro} research using transformed cell lines—many researchers are simply unaware of the sex of the cell line they are using, despite efforts to document these cell lines. Although the process of creating stable and immortalized stem lines does not presently allow for perfect equivalency (leading to comparison) of female and male cell lines at this time, sex identification is nonetheless an important first step. This work is still in its infancy, but a full catalog of sex of common cell lines could increase the accuracy and degree of reporting. Science policy—from institutional to federal levels—should insist upon sex-related reporting for these studies.

It is laudable that the NIH has achieved parity in terms of inclusion of females in clinical and health-based studies. Parity at the aggregate level, however, may obscure some differences at the field level. For example, our data results that females are more often studied in virology and cancer while males are the focus in neurology and the study of addictive diseases; these disparities may cause distortions in what is known about each sex within these fields. Research that examines both sexes extends the generalizability of the research, reduces the risk of practical health-based interventions and applications, and enhances replicability. It is important that parity be demonstrated at lower levels of analyses to mitigate disparities, particularly in specialties with implications for both sexes.
When working with animal models, many researchers have simply used males as a default model; and the current generation has simply followed tradition. Given the growing importance of animal welfare, Institutional Animal Care and Use Committees (IACUC) ensure validity of research while also promoting the “three Rs”: replacement (with non-animals, e.g., cells, tissue), refinement (reduction of pain, suffering and distress) and reduction (in the number of animals) (22). If sex inclusion is not properly justified from the onset in the research design, reduction of the sample may make the population base too small for extensive sex stratification. This reinforces the relationship between sex-related reporting and research design: sex inclusion is more feasible when planned at the onset during research design.

Sex inclusion is also a matter of scientific integrity. For example, Responsible Conduct of Research (RCR) training, which is obligatory for all publicly funded researchers in the US, examines issues of gender discrimination respecting scientists, and the inclusion of females in research on human subjects (e.g., clinical trials) (23-24). However, sex inclusion and reporting can and should be discussed in many other areas of research integrity. For example, micro-ethics discussions—often called “good laboratory practice” —should enable sex identification in effective record keeping, transparent reporting, and any sharing of data or material (such as on Material Transfer Agreements). Sex identification becomes an identifying factor that augments reproducibility and replicability. Research that considers sex differences could ultimately reduce health inequities, making sex-related reporting an ethical obligation and social responsibility.

Journals have taken initial steps to adopt guidelines for reporting on sex-related reporting and analysis (15). However, this is more the exception rather than the rule. In 2011, the Institute of Medicine hosted a workshop on sex-related reporting in research with various stakeholders including editors in biomedical research and medicine. Editors and stakeholders agreed that sex-related reporting is feasible and fairly simple; however, requiring comparison between sexes—such as sex stratification—seemed controversial; many thought that controlling how experiments were designed, planned and conducted should be enabled and enforced mainly by funding agencies (25).

One may hypothesize that since women are not prevalent in leadership positions, their presence may also be limited as editors, making sex-related reporting systemically less important to lead editors. It may also be that female authors have a limited ability to direct research within a lab: women hold a minority of authorships across the sciences (26), account for only a third of first-authorships in high impact medical journals (27), and are more likely to be involved in experimentation than in research design (38). Gender is also a factor in grant receipt and amount of funding (28). Without women leading and designing research, there may be markedly fewer articles with sex-inclusion generally, and studies of women, specifically. This has potentially dramatic health consequences for the entire population.

Medical education, healthcare procurement, and service provision are expected to be based on the use of the best available scientific evidence. Therefore, the intentional or unintentional inclusion of sex biases “upstream” in research can be particularly pernicious for the “downstream” policy-making and service provision and policy. Sex and gender must be taken into account throughout the lifecycle of research. Diversification in the scientific workforce and
in the research populations—from cell lines, to rodents, to humans—is essential to produce the most rigorous and effective medical research.

DECLARATIONS

Contributions

Conceived and designed the experiments: CRS, ES, YYA, VL; Performed the experiments: CRS, YYA, BM, VL; Analyzed the data: CRS, YYA, VL; Wrote the paper: CRS, YYA, ES, VL. All authors approved the final text.

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REFERENCES


APPENDIX

MeSH analysis
To test our method for false negatives, we used a specialties-based stratified sampling from all articles that did not include a sex-related MeSH (Table S1). From these, we randomly selected three articles for each specialty. In total, 171 articles (from all 57 specialties) were coded. For 147 of these studies (86%), neither sex nor gender was mentioned anywhere in the article. Within those that did not mention sex, 43% (n=73) were cases where sex-based analysis was not particularly warranted: e.g., they were largely non-empirical (reviews, policy papers, opinions) or focused on computational or mathematical models. The remaining were empirical pieces involving humans, animals, and cell cultures, in which sex-based reporting and analysis would be expected. Only 14 studied explicitly reported the sex of the study: eight were single-sex studies and six provided distributions of the sex of the population. Of the studies which explicitly or implicitly mention sex, only four studies provided a sex-based analysis. In two of these, although sex was controlled for in the regression, there was no distribution listed by sex. Therefore, in only 1% of studies (two of 171) was sex both reported and analyzed. This confirms the association between the lack of a sex-based MeSH and the absence of sex-based reporting and analysis in the study (Table S1).

Table S1. Manual validation of sex-based MeSH headings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sex inclusion warranted</th>
<th>Sex reporting</th>
<th>Sex analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Absence of sex-related MeSH (false negatives) (n=171)</td>
<td>56% (n=96)</td>
<td>8% (n=14)</td>
<td>1% (n=2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presence of sex-related MeSH (false positives) (n=171)</td>
<td>99% (n=169)</td>
<td>95% (n=164)</td>
<td>76% (n=130)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We analyzed for false positives in a similar manner. A sample of 171 papers from the 57 disciplines were retrieved, with papers having male only, female only, and both sex-related MeSH in equal proportion. Only two articles did not warrant sex-related reporting: one was providing a blueprint for a genomic platform and the other a technical report on a medical device. Out of the 169 remaining papers, 164 reported the sex of the population studied; the 5 studies that did not report sex of were cell-based analyses (n=3), a case study that did not report the sex of the individual analyzed (n=1), and one empirical study. All misclassifications were single-sex studies; all the papers to which two sex-related MeSH were assigned contained information on the sex of the sample. However, while all single sex studies de facto reported and analyzed findings by sex, this was not true of those where both sexes were in MeSH. For instance, 33 of the 57 papers (58%) that had both sex-related MeSH assigned reported the sex distribution of their sample, but did not break down the results or outcomes by sex. The remainder (24 papers, 41%) contained both the sex breakdown of the sample as well as results analyzed for each sex. This suggests that MeSH headings are good indicators of sex-related reporting, but not sex analysis.
**Regression analysis.** A flowchart of the process is presented in Figure S1. In the sex-related reporting models, our dependent variables (SR, SR_M, SR_F, and SR_B) are binary variables that indicates the existence of sex-related reporting in the paper, determined by the sex-related MeSH terms. In the main Sex-related reporting (SR) Model, ‘Male’, ‘Female’, and ‘Both’ are all considered to be one (SR=1) and ‘None’ is considered to be zero (SR=0); in SR_B model, only ‘Both’ is considered to be one (SR_B=1); in SR_F model, ‘Female’ and ‘Both’ are considered to be one (SR_F=1); SR_M is analogously defined. To capture the general participation of female authors in disease topics, we calculated the average female first (last) author fraction given a set of disease MeSH terms (‘C’ category) in a paper. We first calculated the fraction of the papers with female first (last) author given a disease MeSH term, then for each paper that contains disease MeSH terms, we averaged the mean value associated with each MeSH term. Because the two variables for the first and the last authors are strongly correlated and may cause multicollinearity problem, we take the average of the two values to obtain the final variable f_mesh. As in a similar study (18), we dropped articles for which we could not calculate MeSH covariates. The remaining dataset contains \( N = 1,273,687 \) data points. The main results do not qualitatively change when we include all 2,018,697 articles without using f_mesh. Similarly, using the main country label extracted from each paper, we obtain a country female author covariate, f_country, based on the female first and last author prevalence in each country. The condition index of the design matrix was calculated to estimate the strength of the multicollinearity. After merging the two first- and last-author covariates, the condition index was smaller than 30 (26.1).

We fitted logistic regression models using the standard enter method, with binary variables for the authors’ gender combinations—which has been associated with sex-related reporting—as the primary independent variables. We use the following control variables: the number of authors (log2), binary variables for 57 specialties, binary variables for six continents (based on the affiliation of the author), average female author fraction for each disease MeSH term (f_mesh), average female author fraction for each country (f_country), and year. The number of authors reflect the scale of the study, which is likely associated with sex-related reporting. The specialties, continents, f_mesh, and f_country are included to control for the association between author's gender, topics, diseases, and sex-related reporting. To capture the effect of the authors’ gender, we created four categorical dummy variables (‘MM’, ‘MF’, ‘FM’, ‘FF’) and used ‘MM’ as the reference. The specialties and continents are similarly prepared. North America was used as the reference. When all specialties are considered, the reference variable is “Addictive Diseases”; For disciplinary models, the reference variables are “Anatomy & Morphology”, “Addictive Diseases” “Geriatrics & Gerontology” for Biomedical Research, Clinical Medicine, and Public Health respectively. The number of authors exhibits a heavy-tailed distribution that spans multiple orders of magnitude. Therefore, we used a logarithmic transformation with base 2 instead of using the raw values. The regression tables are shown in Tables S3-S6 (SR models for the whole dataset and for three major disciplines) and SI Tables S7-S9 (SR_M, SR_F, SR_B models for the whole dataset).

In the impact factor model, we used OLS (Ordinary Least Square) linear regression model with the following independent variables: binary variables for sex-related reporting (Male, Female, Both), and control variables: binary variables for the gender of the first and the last authors, the number of authors (log2), binary variables for the specialties and continents. In order to examine temporal trends, we extracted papers published in 2008, 2010, 2012, 2014, and 2016, and fitted
four models for each year set. As in the case of the previous model, we fitted an aggregated model that includes all major disciplines as well as separate discipline-based models (see Tables S10-S13). Multicollinearity is tested using the variance inflation factor (VIF) and none of our independent variables exhibits high (>5.0) VIF. All models were estimated using Python statsmodels package (34) and source code is available on GitHub (https://github.com/TBD).

Additional tables and figures

Table S2. Sex-related MeSH, number of papers retrieved, and percentage of all papers retrieved, 1980-2016

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<th>Female-related MeSH</th>
<th>Male-related MeSH</th>
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<tr>
<td>Circumcision, Female</td>
<td>Contraceptive Agents, Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Condoms, Female</td>
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<td>Contraceptive Agents, Female</td>
<td>Fertility Agents, Male</td>
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<tr>
<td>Contraceptive Devices, Female</td>
<td>Genital Diseases, Male</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dentists, Women</td>
<td>Genital Neoplasms, Male</td>
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<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Genitalia, Male</td>
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<tr>
<td>Female Athlete Triad Syndrome</td>
<td>Homosexuality, Male</td>
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<tr>
<td>Female Urogenital Diseases</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Urologic Surgical Procedures, Male</td>
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<td>Physicians, Women</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pregnant Women</td>
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<td>Tuberculosis, Female Genital Women</td>
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<td>Women</td>
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Table S3. Coefficients and odds ratios of the variables from the logistic regression model for the sex-related reporting on the aggregated dataset with all disciplines and specialties

Logit Regression Results

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<td>1273618</td>
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<p>|              | coef           | std err | z    | P&gt;|z| [0.025 0.975] | Odds Ratio | [0.025 0.975] |
|---------------|----------------|---------|------|-----------------|-------------|-----------|
| Intercept     | 5.2113         | 1.714   | 3.04 | 0.002           | 1.852       | 8.571     |
| Male-Female   | 0.0597         | 0.007   | 9.119| 0.047           | 0.072       | 1.06      |
| Female-Male   | 0.063          | 0.005   | 12.215| 0.053           | 0.073       | 1.07      |
| Female-Female | 0.2313         | 0.007   | 34.423| 0.218           | 0.245       | 1.26      |
| CONTINENT[T.Africa] | 1.0697 | 0.028 | 37.756| 1.014           | 1.125       | 2.91      |
| CONTINENT[T.Asia] | 0.4913 | 0.007 | 73.224| 0.478           | 0.504       | 1.63      |
| CONTINENT[T.Europe] | 0.1412 | 0.005 | 27.639| 0.131           | 0.151       | 1.15      |
| CONTINENT[T.Oceania] | 0.042  | 0.013 | 3.346 | 0.017           | 0.067       | 1.04      |
| CONTINENT[T.South America] | 0.317  | 0.013 | 24.151| 0.291           | 0.343       | 1.37      |
| SUBDISCIPLINE[T.Allergy] | -1.3039 | 0.052 | -25.246| -1.405          | -1.203      | 0.27      |
| SUBDISCIPLINE[T.Anatomy &amp; Morphology] | -1.1473 | 0.07 | -16.371| -1.285          | -1.01       | 0.32      |
| SUBDISCIPLINE[T.Anesthesiology] | -0.7386 | 0.043 | -17.184| -0.823          | -0.654      | 0.48      |
| SUBDISCIPLINE[T.Arthritis &amp; Rheumatology] | -0.884 | 0.037 | -23.937| -0.956          | -0.812      | 0.41      |
| SUBDISCIPLINE[T.Biochemistry &amp; Molecular Biology] | -2.6924 | 0.033 | -82.787| -2.756          | -2.629      | 0.07      |
| SUBDISCIPLINE[T.Biomedical Engineering] | -2.5512 | 0.042 | -60.833| -2.633          | -2.469      | 0.08      |
| SUBDISCIPLINE[T.Biomedical Social Sciences] | -0.6888 | 0.077 | -9.003| -0.839          | -0.539      | 0.5       |
| SUBDISCIPLINE[T.Biophysics] | -2.37 | 0.059 | -40.492| -2.485          | -2.255      | 0.09      |
| SUBDISCIPLINE[T.Cancer] | -1.3226 | 0.032 | -41.57 | -1.385          | -1.26       | 0.27      |
| SUBDISCIPLINE[T.Cardiovascular System] | -0.7492 | 0.033 | -22.966| -0.813          | -0.685      | 0.47      |</p>
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Table S4. Coefficients and odds ratios of the variables from the logistic regression on Biomedical Research.

Logit Regression Results

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|                          | coef  | std err  | z     | P>|z|  | [0.025] | [0.975] | Odds Ratio  | [0.025] | [0.975] |
|--------------------------|-------|----------|-------|------|---------|---------|-------------|---------|---------|
| Intercept                | -50.969 | 3.931    | -12.967 | 0   | -58.673 | -43.265 | 0           | 0       | 0       |
| Male-Female              | 0.0706  | 0.014    | 4.963 | 0   | 0.043   | 0.098   | 1.07        | 1.04    | 1.1     |
| Female-Male              | 0.0702  | 0.011    | 6.339 | 0   | 0.049   | 0.092   | 1.07        | 1.05    | 1.1     |
| Female-Female            | 0.2369  | 0.014    | 16.799 | 0   | 0.209   | 0.264   | 1.27        | 1.23    | 1.3     |
| CONTINENT[T.Africa]      | 1.1695  | 0.058    | 20.068 | 0   | 1.055   | 1.284   | 3.22        | 2.87    | 3.61    |
| CONTINENT[T.Asia]        | 0.5853  | 0.014    | 42.402 | 0   | 0.558   | 0.612   | 1.8         | 1.75    | 1.84    |
| CONTINENT[T.Europe]      | 0.2308  | 0.012    | 19.777 | 0   | 0.208   | 0.254   | 1.26        | 1.23    | 1.29    |
| CONTINENT[T.Oceania]     | 0.1535  | 0.03     | 5.162 | 0   | 0.095   | 0.212   | 1.17        | 1.1     | 1.24    |
| CONTINENT[T.South America]| 0.475  | 0.028    | 16.805 | 0   | 0.42    | 0.53    | 1.61        | 1.52    | 1.7     |
| SUBDISCIPLINE[T.Biochemistry & Molecular Biology] | -1.5374 | 0.064 | -24.177 | 0   | -1.662 | -1.413 | 0.21 | 0.19 | 0.24 |
| SUBDISCIPLINE[T.Biomedical Engineering] | -1.3926 | 0.069 | -20.322 | 0   | -1.527 | -1.258 | 0.25 | 0.22 | 0.28 |
| SUBDISCIPLINE[T.Biophysics] | -1.2211 | 0.08 | -15.332 | 0   | -1.377 | -1.065 | 0.29 | 0.25 | 0.34 |
| SUBDISCIPLINE[T.Cellular Biology Cytology & Histology] | -1.3836 | 0.065 | -21.306 | 0   | -1.511 | -1.256 | 0.25 | 0.22 | 0.28 |
| SUBDISCIPLINE[T.Embryology] | -0.2414 | 0.083 | -2.893 | 0.004 | -0.405 | -0.078 | 0.79 | 0.67 | 0.92 |
| Subdiscipline                                      | Coef       | Std. Err | z     | P>|z| | [0.025] | [0.975] | Odds Ratio | [0.025] | [0.975] |
|--------------------------------------------------|------------|----------|-------|-----|--------|--------|-----------|--------|--------|
| General Biomedical Research                      | -0.8852    | 0.063    | -13.95 | 0   | -1.01 | -0.76 | 0.41 | 0.36 | 0.47     |
| Genetics & Heredity                              | -0.9187    | 0.065    | -14.19 | 0   | -1.046 | -0.79 | 0.4  | 0.35 | 0.45     |
| Microbiology                                     | -1.5937    | 0.063    | -24.36 | 0   | -1.722 | -1.46 | 0.2  | 0.18 | 0.23     |
| Microscopy                                       | -1.9419    | 0.174    | -11.13 | 0   | -2.284 | -1.6  | 0.14 | 0.1  | 0.2      |
| Miscellaneous Biomedical Research                | -0.5008    | 0.068    | -7.39  | 0   | -0.634 | -0.36 | 0.61 | 0.53 | 0.69     |
| Nutrition & Dietetic                             | 0.0956     | 0.066    | 1.44  | 0.15| -0.035 | 0.226 | 1.1  | 0.97 | 1.25     |
| Parasitology                                     | -1.5184    | 0.069    | -22.14 | 0   | -1.653 | -1.38 | 0.22 | 0.19 | 0.25     |
| Physiology                                       | 0.0145     | 0.066    | 0.22  | 0.826| -0.115 | 0.144 | 1.01 | 0.89 | 1.15     |
| Virology                                         | -1.6637    | 0.066    | -25.21 | 0   | -1.793 | -1.53 | 0.19 | 0.17 | 0.22     |
| Year                                             | 0.0245     | 0.002    | 12.52 | 0   | 0.021 | 0.028 | 1.02 | 1.02 | 1.03     |
| np.log2(N_AUTHORS)                               | 0.537      | 0.006    | 87.617 | 0  | 0.525 | 0.549 | 1.71 | 1.69 | 1.73     |
| F_MESH                                           | 1.5799     | 0.078    | 20.21 | 0   | 1.427 | 1.733 | 4.85 | 4.17 | 5.66     |
| F_COUNTRY                                        | 1.4196     | 0.085    | 16.663 | 0  | 1.253 | 1.587 | 4.14 | 3.5  | 4.89     |

**Table S5.** Coefficients and odds ratios of the variables from the logistic regression on the Clinical Medicine.

Logit Regression Results

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**Table S6.** Coefficients and odds ratios of the variables from the logistic regression on the Public Health.

Logit Regression Results

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25
Table S7. Coefficients and odds ratios of the variables from the logistic regression, sex-related reporting = male (SR_M).

Logit Regression Results

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<p>|            | coef  | std err | z     | P&gt;|z| | [0.025 | 0.975 | Odds Ratio | [0.025 | 0.975 |
|------------|-------|---------|-------|------|-------|------|----------|-------|------|
| Intercept  | -17.129 | 1.595   | -10.737 | 0   | -20.256 | -14.002 | 0         | 0     | 0    |
| Male-Female | 0.0271 | 0.006   | 4.416   | 0   | 0.015   | 0.039   | 1.03      | 1.02  | 1.04 |
| Female-Male | 0.0114 | 0.005   | 2.36    | 0.018 | 0.002   | 0.021   | 1.01      | 1     | 1.02 |
| Female-Female | 0.0468 | 0.006   | 7.586   | 0   | 0.035   | 0.059   | 1.05      | 1.04  | 1.06 |
| CONTINENT[T.Africa] | 0.9095 | 0.024   | 37.802  | 0   | 0.862   | 0.957   | 2.48      | 2.37  | 2.6  |
| CONTINENT[T.Asia] | 0.3881 | 0.006   | 62.959  | 0   | 0.376   | 0.4     | 1.47      | 1.46  | 1.49 |</p>
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Table S8. Coefficients and odds ratios of the variables from the logistic regression, sex-related reporting = male (SR_F).
<p>|                        | coef  | std err | z     | P&gt;|z|  | [0.025 | 0.975 | Odds Ratio | [0.025 | 0.975 |
|------------------------|-------|---------|-------|-----|--------|-------|------------|--------|-------|
| Intercept              | -27.413 | 1.584  | -17.301 | 0  | -30.519 | -24.308 | 0          | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Male-Female            | 0.0756 | 0.006  | 12.437 | 0  | 0.064  | 0.088  | 1.08       | 1.07 | 1.09 |
| Female-Male            | 0.075  | 0.005  | 15.673 | 0  | 0.066  | 0.084  | 1.08       | 1.07 | 1.09 |
| Female-Female          | 0.2507 | 0.006  | 40.256 | 0  | 0.238  | 0.263  | 1.28       | 1.27 | 1.3 |
| CONTINENT[T.Africa]    | 0.7045 | 0.024  | 29.262 | 0  | 0.657  | 0.752  | 2.02       | 1.93 | 2.12 |
| CONTINENT[T.Asia]      | 0.203  | 0.006  | 33.225 | 0  | 0.191  | 0.215  | 1.23       | 1.21 | 1.24 |
| CONTINENT[T.Europe]    | 0.1443 | 0.005  | 30.176 | 0  | 0.135  | 0.154  | 1.16       | 1.14 | 1.17 |
| CONTINENT[T.Oceania]   | 0.0481 | 0.012  | 4.06   | 0  | 0.025  | 0.071  | 1.05       | 1.03 | 1.07 |
| CONTINENT[T.South America] | -0.0766 | 0.012  | -6.565 | 0  | -0.099 | -0.054 | 0.93       | 0.91 | 0.95 |
| SUBDISCIPLINE[T.Allergy] | -0.6237 | 0.048 | -13.112 | 0  | -0.717 | -0.53  | 0.54       | 0.49 | 0.59 |
| SUBDISCIPLINE[T.Anatomy &amp; Morphology] | -0.9236 | 0.064 | -14.362 | 0  | -1.05  | -0.798 | 0.4        | 0.35 | 0.45 |
| SUBDISCIPLINE[T.Anesthesiology] | -0.5692 | 0.037 | -15.558 | 0  | -0.641 | -0.497 | 0.57       | 0.53 | 0.61 |
| SUBDISCIPLINE[T.Arthritis &amp; Rheumatology] | -0.3369 | 0.031 | -10.708 | 0  | -0.399 | -0.275 | 0.71       | 0.67 | 0.76 |
| SUBDISCIPLINE[T.Biochemistry &amp; Molecular Biology] | -2.3817 | 0.028 | -86.142 | 0  | -2.436 | -2.327 | 0.09       | 0.09 | 0.1 |
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| SUBDISCIPLINE[T.Biomedical Social Sciences] | -0.2241 | 0.072 | -3.106 | 0.002 | -0.366 | -0.083 | 0.8        | 0.69 | 0.92 |
| SUBDISCIPLINE[T.Biophysics] | -2.0579 | 0.061 | -33.832 | 0  | -2.177 | -1.939 | 0.13       | 0.11 | 0.14 |
| SUBDISCIPLINE[T.Cancer] | -0.8121 | 0.026 | -30.885 | 0  | -0.864 | -0.761 | 0.44       | 0.42 | 0.47 |
| SUBDISCIPLINE[T.Cardiovascular System] | -0.3878 | 0.027 | -14.384 | 0  | -0.441 | -0.335 | 0.68       | 0.64 | 0.72 |
| SUBDISCIPLINE[T.Cellular Biology Cytology &amp; Histology] | -2.2116 | 0.031 | -70.664 | 0  | -2.273 | -2.15  | 0.11       | 0.1  | 0.12 |
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| SUBDISCIPLINE[T.Dermatology &amp; Venerial Disease] | -0.7931 | 0.029 | -26.938 | 0  | -0.851 | -0.735 | 0.45       | 0.43 | 0.48 |
| SUBDISCIPLINE[T.Embryology] | -0.9849 | 0.057 | -17.167 | 0  | -1.097 | -0.872 | 0.37       | 0.33 | 0.42 |
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Table S9. Coefficients and odds ratios of the variables from the logistic regression, sex-related reporting = male (SR_B).

Logit Regression Results

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<p>| Variable                  | coef  | std err  | z     | P&gt;|z|  | [0.025 | 0.975 | Odds Ratio | [0.025 | 0.975 |
|---------------------------|-------|----------|-------|------|-------|-------|-----------|-------|-------|
| Intercept                 | -49.14| 1.593    | -30.84| 0    | -52.263| -46.017| 0         | 0     | 0     |
| Male-Female               | 0.0535| 0.006    | 8.72  | 0    | 0.041 | 0.066 | 1.05      | 1.04  | 1.07  |
| Female-Male               | 0.0348| 0.005    | 7.222 | 0    | 0.025 | 0.044 | 1.04      | 1.03  | 1.04  |
| Female-Female             | 0.0981| 0.006    | 15.815| 0    | 0.086 | 0.11  | 1.1       | 1.09  | 1.12  |
| CONTINENT[T.Africa]       | 0.7188| 0.023    | 31.282| 0    | 0.674 | 0.764 | 2.05      | 1.96  | 2.15  |
| CONTINENT[T.Asia]         | 0.1737| 0.006    | 28.289| 0    | 0.162 | 0.186 | 1.19      | 1.18  | 1.2   |
| CONTINENT[T.Europe]       | 0.1796| 0.005    | 37.377| 0    | 0.17  | 0.189 | 1.2       | 1.19  | 1.21  |
| CONTINENT[T.Oceania]      | 0.1291| 0.012    | 10.934| 0    | 0.106 | 0.152 | 1.14      | 1.11  | 1.16  |
| CONTINENT[T.South America]| -0.0877| 0.012   | -7.513| 0    | -0.111| -0.065| 0.92      | 0.89  | 0.94  |
| SUBDISCIPLINE[T.Allergy]  | -0.786 | 0.046   | -17.148| 0    | -0.876| -0.696| 0.46      | 0.42  | 0.5   |
| SUBDISCIPLINE[T.Anatomy &amp; Morphology] | -1.7987| 0.066 | -27.402| 0    | -1.927| -1.67  | 0.17      | 0.15  | 0.19  |
| SUBDISCIPLINE[T.Anesthesiology] | -1.4526| 0.035 | -40.959| 0    | -1.522| -1.383| 0.23      | 0.22  | 0.25  |
| SUBDISCIPLINE[T.Arthritis &amp; Rheumatology] | -0.9666| 0.029 | -32.823| 0    | -1.024| -0.909| 0.38      | 0.36  | 0.4   |
| SUBDISCIPLINE[T.Biochemistry &amp; Molecular Biology] | -3.1046| 0.027 | -113.47| 0    | -3.158| -3.051| 0.04      | 0.04  | 0.05  |
| SUBDISCIPLINE[T.Biomedical Engineering] | -2.9319| 0.043 | -67.43 | 0    | -3.017| -2.847| 0.05      | 0.05  | 0.06  |
| SUBDISCIPLINE[T.Biomedical Social Sciences] | -0.5493| 0.068 | -8.08  | 0    | -0.683| -0.416| 0.58      | 0.51  | 0.66  |
| SUBDISCIPLINE[T.Biophysics] | -2.86 | 0.069 | -41.186| 0    | -2.996| -2.724| 0.06      | 0.05  | 0.07  |
| SUBDISCIPLINE[T.Cancer]   | -2.0529| 0.025 | -82.657| 0    | -2.102| -2.004| 0.13      | 0.12  | 0.13  |
| SUBDISCIPLINE[T.Cardiovascular System] | -1.0956| 0.025 | -43.176| 0    | -1.145| -1.046| 0.33      | 0.32  | 0.35  |
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Figure S1. Creation of the dataset for the regression analysis

11,572,428 papers matched between WoS and PubMed

3,298,951 papers published between 2008 and 2016 used for author gender assignment

2,018,697 papers have gender assignments for both the first and the last authors

1,273,687 papers where all variables can be calculated (f_mesh and f_country)

8,273,477 papers are excluded in the regression analysis (they are included in other analyses)

1,192,430 papers are excluded because we could not infer the gender of either the first or the last author, or only has a single author

745,010 papers are excluded because they do not have any disease MeSH terms where we could calculate f_mesh